

# **SNI: a new mechanism for gamma ray burst. I. Weak magnetic field**

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## **ABSTRACT**

We propose a new mechanism for high energy gamma ray burst in Supernova type I (SNI) explosion. Presupernova is assumed to be a binary system comprised of a red giant and a white dwarf with a wind accretion. The accretion flow terminates by the accretion shock in the vicinity of the white dwarf at the distance of the order of the accretion radius. The gas inside the accretion radius constitutes the main body of a target for gamma ray production.

The supernova explosion and the shock propagation in the white dwarf result in the hydrodynamical acceleration of the outer layers of the star. It proceeds in two stages. The first stage is caused by the shock propagating in the outer layers of the star; the second stage is connected with the adiabatic expansion of the ejected shell into low-density medium around the white dwarf. The spectrum of accelerated particles is steep and the maximum energy does not exceed 1000 *GeV*.

The gamma ray burst is produced due to interaction of the accelerated particles with the gas in the binary system. Most of the photons have energies about 100 *MeV*, the total number of the emitted photons is between  $10^{46}$  and  $10^{47}$ . The typical duration of the burst is  $\sim 1 - 3$  s for  $\sim 100$  *MeV* photons and  $10^{-3}$  s for  $\sim 1$  *GeV* photons.

The gamma ray burst might have one or two precursors. The first one is produced during the shock breakout when the shock approaches the star surface and crosses it. This burst is produced by the heated gas behind the shock; the radiation is blue-shifted due to the relativistic motion of the shell. The second burst might be produced under the appropriate choice of the parameters at the stage of the adiabatic expansion of the shell of the accelerated matter, when the shell becomes transparent for radiation.

The calculations are valid in the case of a weak magnetic field. The case of strong magnetic field will be considered in part II (in preparation).

*Subject headings:* gamma rays: burst - stars: supernovae - acceleration of particles - shock waves

## 1. Introduction

It could be that there are a few different types of sources of observed gamma ray bursts (GRB). If GRB have cosmological origin, the repeaters are sources of a different type. GRB with smooth and complex time profiles can be produced by two different types of sources. Probably burst radiation is a typical phenomenon for many types of sources.

Our aim is not to explain the observed GRB but to search for reliable production mechanisms, which can be discovered in future. In this sense our paper is similar to the one by Berezhinsky and Prilutsky (1985) where the mechanism of GRB due to  $\nu\bar{\nu}$  annihilation at the collapse of a compact object was suggested. At that time this mechanism could not explain the observed GRB, but it was used later for explanation of GRB in the case of their cosmological origin.

We propose a mechanism of GRB in SNI explosion. More specifically, we study SNIa explosions, which as widely accepted occur in a binary system comprised of a carbon-oxygen white dwarf with nearly Chandrasekhar mass and a late-type secondary companion star (Wheeler and Harkness 1990, Khokhlov *et al.* 1993) .

The explosion is caused by the thermonuclear reactions due to disc accretion ( Nomoto 1982) or wind accretion (Munari and Renzini 1992, Kenyon *et al.* 1993) of the gas onto the white dwarf. The shock wave propagation through the outermost layer of the white dwarf accelerates a small part of it to relativistic and ultrarelativistic velocities as it was first suggested by Colgate and Johnson 1960 .

This acceleration is connected with the increase of the shock velocity, when the shock propagates in a medium with decreasing density.

For a long time the Colgate mechanism (see Colgate (1984) for a review) was one of the challengers for acceleration of the observed cosmic rays. Now there are convincing arguments based on adiabatic energy losses and on the estimates of rate of accelerated particles, that this is not the case (e.g. Woosley, Taam and Weaver 1986).

It is most probably true that the Colgate mechanism cannot provide all observed pool of cosmic rays, but it is also true that this mechanism does work under appropriate physical conditions. In particular it works in the case of shock propagation through the surface of a white dwarf. The interaction of accelerated particles with ambient gas results in the production of gamma radiation through  $p - p$  collisions, with the consequent  $\pi^0$  production and decays.

In this paper we investigate a gamma ray burst produced due to the interaction of accelerated particles with the accreting gas in the regime of wind accretion . In Section 2 the space distribution of the gas in accretion flow is considered. The propagation of the shock in the envelope of the white dwarf is studied in Section 3. In Section 4 we consider the additional acceleration of particles due to expansion of the shell in the low-density medium and calculate the resulting energy spectrum. The main gamma ray burst, produced as a result of the interaction of accelerated particles with the accretion flow, is described in Section 5. Discussion and conclusions are presented in Section 6.

## 2. Gas distribution in presupernova binary system

We shall concentrate mostly on the Supernova type Ia for which explosion occurs in the white dwarf. As a model for a presupernova we shall consider a binary system comprised of a carbon-oxygen white dwarf and a red giant. The accretion to the white dwarf results in an explosion which occurs when the accreting gas is accumulated on the carbon-oxygen interior of the compact companion and triggers the detonation with consequent mass ejection.

We shall consider the wind regime of accretion when the white dwarf accretes the gas from the companion's stellar wind (Kenyon *et al.* 1993, Munari and Renzini 1992) . In this regime of accretion an explosion is possible for a carbon-oxygen white dwarf with initial mass  $0.5 - 1.3 M_{\odot}$  and for accretion rate of helium gas  $\dot{M}_a \leq 4 \times 10^{-8} M_{\odot}/yr$  (Fujimoto & Taam 1982, Woosley & Weaver 1993). .

Observationally, such systems correspond to the symbiotic stars. The observed orbital periods for these stars ( $1 - 10 yr$ ) imply a separation of the binary components  $d \simeq (2 - 9) \times 10^{13} cm$ . The secondary component generally does not fill its Roche lobe and the mass loss is provided by the stellar wind at the of rate  $\dot{M}_W \sim 10^{-7} M_{\odot}/yr$  (Kenyon *et al.* 1993) .

As a first approximation, the accretion from the stellar wind can be described by the classical theory of Hoyle and Littleton (1939). The parameters of this theory are the mass of the accreting star  $M_S$ , the density of the gas in the wind  $\rho_W$  and its velocity in respect to the star  $u_W$ . The theory operates with the accretion radius  $R_{acc}$  and the accretion rate  $\dot{M}_{HL}$  given by:

$$R_{acc} = \frac{2GM_S}{u_W^2(d)} \quad (1)$$

and:

$$\dot{M}_{HL} = \pi R_{acc}^2 \rho_W(d) u_W(d) \quad (2)$$

where  $G$  is the gravitational constant and  $d$  is the separation of the stars. We shall assume the supersonic flow of the gas at the large distance from the star  $r \sim d$ .

The recent numerical calculations for two-dimensional axisymmetric wind accretion were performed by Matsuda, Inoue and Sawada (1987), Fryxell and Taam (1988), Taam and Fryxel (1988,1989) , Taam, Fu and Fryxell (1991). The hydrodynamical picture of the gas flow includes

the shock, the region of stagnation  $u_{acc} \simeq 0$ , a considerable density increase in the wake and some other features. The flow critically depends on the accretion rate  $\dot{M}_a$ . For small accretion rates  $\dot{M}_a \ll \dot{M}_{Edd}$  the flow is steady. For the large  $\dot{M}_a$  it probably exhibits a time variation. The details, essential for our calculations, are as follows. The shock is produced at distance  $R_{sh} = \xi R_{acc}$  with  $\xi < 1$  and typically  $\xi = 0.1 - 0.2$ . The accretion rate is  $\dot{M}_a = \eta \dot{M}_{HL}$  where  $\eta$  can reach the large fraction  $\eta \sim 0.6$ .

Inspired by these results we adopt the following simplified picture for the binary system and for the gas flow in it (Fig. 1).

The compact star (white dwarf) and the secondary component (red giant) are separated by distance  $d$ . The red giant does not fill its Roche lobe and its mass loss is due to stellar wind with supersonic velocity  $u_W$ . For our calculations it is enough to assume the spherically-symmetrical shock with radius:

$$R_{sh} = \xi R_{acc}. \quad (3)$$

Outside the shock the density distribution is:

$$\rho_W(r_{RG}) = \frac{\dot{M}_W}{4\pi u_W r_{RG}^2} \quad (4)$$

where  $r_{RG}$  is the distance from the red giant. Inside the shock we assume:

$$\rho_a(r) = \rho_a(R_{sh})(r/R_{sh})^{-3/2} \quad (5)$$

according to the calculations of Taam, Fu and Fryxel (1991). Eq. (5) corresponds to the quasi-spherical accretion inside the shock with infall velocity proportional to the free-fall velocity:

$$u_a(r) = \zeta u_{ff}(r), \quad (6)$$

where  $u_{ff} = (2GM_S/r)^{1/2}$  and  $\zeta = \eta/(16\xi^{3/2})$ . In our calculations we shall use  $\eta = 0.5$ ,  $\xi = 0.2$ , and thus  $\zeta = 0.35$ .

We assume the density jump on the surface of the shock as in the strong shock:

$$\rho_a(R_{sh}) = 4\rho_W(d) \quad (7)$$

The numerical values which we use in the calculations are presented in Table 1. We shall summarize the notation used in Table 1:  $R_S$  and  $M_S$  are the radius and the mass of the white dwarf, respectively,  $\rho_0$  is given by Eq. (8),  $d$  is the separation between the stars in the binary,  $R_{sh}$  is the radius of the accretion shock,  $\dot{M}_a$  is the rate of accretion onto the white dwarf,  $\dot{M}_W$  is the rate of mass-loss by the secondary component of the binary,  $u_W$  is the wind velocity and  $x_{sh} = \int_{R_S}^{R_{sh}} \rho(r) dr$  is the column density of accreting gas inside the shock.

### 3. The relativistic shock in SNI and the precursor gamma burst

The explosive nuclear burning in the white dwarf produces an outward-moving shock. In this section we shall study the propagation of the shock in the outer layers of the white dwarf and beyond.

The process of thermonuclear burning propagates in the compact star either in the form of a supersonic detonation wave with velocity  $(1.1 - 1.4) \times 10^9 \text{ cm/s}$ , or in the regime of a subsonic deflagration wave (Khokhlov, Müller & Höflich 1993). The latter can be converted into a detonation wave in the outer layers of the star where the pressure gradient is high. We shall limit our consideration in the propagation of the shock in the periphery of the star, where the typical shock velocity is  $u_{sh} \geq 10^9 \text{ cm/s}$ . The density of the gas in the considered outer layer is characterized by a large gradient. In our estimates we shall use the polytropic model with  $n = 3$  for which the density is

$$\rho(r) = \rho_0 \left(1 - \frac{r}{R_S}\right)^3 \quad (8)$$

where  $\rho_0$  is a constant and  $R_S$  is the radius of the star. The propagation of the shock in the outermost layers of the white dwarf with large density gradient results in the growth of the shock velocity up to the relativistic regime (Colgate and Johnson 1960). The velocity of the strong adiabatic shock wave propagation in the medium with large density gradient  $-d\ln(\rho)/d\ln(r) \gg 1$  in both the nonrelativistic and relativistic regimes may be approximated by the expression given by Gnatyk (1985) :

$$\Gamma_{sh}\beta_{sh} = \text{const} \times \rho^{-a}, \quad (9)$$

where  $\beta_{sh} = u_{sh}/c$  is the dimensionless velocity of the shock,  $c$  is the velocity of light and  $\Gamma_{sh} = (1 - \beta_{sh}^2)^{-1/2}$  is the Lorentz factor of the shock. The parameter  $a$  in this approximation is  $a \approx 0.2$  for both nonrelativistic and relativistic shock waves. Analytical solutions for the nonrelativistic shock wave propagation in exponential and polytropic density distribution give the values  $0.17 \leq a \leq 0.23$  for adiabatic index  $4/3 \leq \gamma_{ad} \leq 5/3$  and polytropic index  $1.5 \leq n \leq 3.25$ . For the ultrarelativistic shock Johnson and McKee (1971) obtained analytically  $a = 0.232$ . In our calculation we shall consider two extreme possibilities:  $a = 0.2$  and  $a = 0.232$ .

Let us calculate now the maximum value of  $\Gamma_{sh}\beta_{sh}$  for the shock in the star. Following Colgate (1984) we shall use instead of  $r$  another variable  $F$ , which is the fraction of the star mass beyond radius  $r$ . Using eq.(8) one obtains:

$$F = \rho^{4/3} \frac{\pi R_S^3}{M_S \rho_0^{1/3}}. \quad (10)$$

Then introducing the initial condition  $\Gamma_{sh}\beta_{sh} = (\Gamma_{sh}\beta_{sh})_i$  at  $F = F_i$  we obtain for the shock velocity in the shell:

$$\Gamma_{sh}\beta_{sh} = (\Gamma_{sh}\beta_{sh})_i \left(\frac{F}{F_i}\right)^{-\frac{3}{4}a}. \quad (11)$$

The numerical calculations (Khokhlov, Müller and Höflich 1993 and reference therein) show that the shock starts to be accelerated effectively at the depth  $F_i \sim 0.05$ . This is caused by the large density gradient in the outer layers of the white dwarf. Hereafter we shall use  $F_i = 0.05$  as the initial value. According to the above mentioned numerical calculations the velocity of the shock at  $F = F_i$  is

$$(\beta_{sh})_i = 5 \times 10^{-2} k_s, \quad (12)$$

with  $k_s$  limited between 0.7 and 1.0. We shall use for our calculations  $k_s = 1.0$ .

The maximum value of  $\Gamma_{sh}\beta_{sh}$  corresponds to the smallest value of  $F$  at which the shock still exists in the outer highly rarefied layer. The shock breaks out at the radius  $r_{max}$  where the dissipation of energy due to the escape of photons or other particles becomes essential. In the case of radiation-dominated nonrelativistic SNII shock, this condition can be expressed as an equality between the optical thickness of photons and the front thickness (Imshennik and Nadyozin 1989, Ensman and Burrows 1992). In the case of relativistic SN shock, the condition for the shock break out can be taken as the equality of the pathlength of the nucleus in the shock transition zone and the residual thickness of this layer (Colgate 1974, 1984). Using (8) and (10) one obtains:

$$F_{min} = \frac{4\pi R_S^2 x_{int}}{M_S} \quad (13)$$

where  $x_{int}$  is the interaction pathlength of nuclei in  $g/cm^2$ . Substituting this value of  $F_{min}$  into Eq.(11) one obtains:

$$(\Gamma_{sh}\beta_{sh})_{max} = (\Gamma_{sh}\beta_{sh})_i \left( \frac{4\pi R_S^2 x_{int}}{M_S F_i} \right)^{-\frac{3}{4}a}. \quad (14)$$

The value of  $x_{int}$  depends on the physical conditions in the shock transition zone. For the relativistic shock waves considered here, the main source of shock dissipation is ion-lepton dynamical friction (Colgate 1974, Weaver 1976). In the compact white dwarf case, the temperature at the shock front nearby the surface is of the order of  $(3 - 4) \times 10^8 K$  (see below) and the number density of electron-positron pairs reaches  $10^{23} - 10^{24} cm^{-3}$ . The main energy losses of ions in this case are due to elastic nucleus-electron scattering and bremsstrahlung radiation. The pathlength of ions is  $1 - 3 g/cm^2$ . In the extended white dwarf case the temperature at the surface is lower and the energy losses are dominated by pion production. However, deeper in the star at  $x \sim 10 g/cm^2$ , the temperature is again high enough for  $e^+e^-$  production and the effective pathlength can be taken as  $x_{int} \sim 10 g/cm^2$ . Fortunately according to eq. (14)  $(\Gamma_{sh}\beta_{sh})_{max}$  weakly depends on  $x_{int}$ , typically as  $x_{int}^{-0.15}$ . In the calculations below we use  $x_{int} = 3 g/cm^2$ . Eqs.(11) and (14) describe the propagation of the shock through the outer layers of the star. Namely, eq.(11) gives the value of  $\Gamma\beta$  for the shock at the various positions  $F$  and eq.(14) gives the maximum value of  $\Gamma\beta$ , at the moment when the shock reaches the surface of the star.

Now we shall proceed with the calculations of the velocity of the gas and its thermodynamical characteristics behind the shock. After the shock crosses a layer of the gas, this layer acquires a

radial velocity which is somewhat smaller than the shock velocity. The gas behind the shock is also heated to a high temperature. This is the first stage of hydrodynamical acceleration.

Let us give the typical values of  $(\Gamma_{sh}\beta_{sh})_{max}$  in our models. For the *compact white dwarf* model with  $M_S = 1.4M_\odot$ ,  $R_S = 1 \times 10^8 cm$  and  $\rho_o = 1 \times 10^{12} g/cm^3$  (Table 2),  $F_{min}$  from eq.(13) is  $4.5 \times 10^{-17}$  and hence  $(\Gamma_{sh}\beta_{sh})_{max} = 9.0$  and  $20$  for  $a = 0.2$  and  $a = 0.232$ , respectively. For the *extended white dwarf* model with  $M_S = 1.0M_\odot$ ,  $R_S = 1 \times 10^9 cm$  and  $\rho_o = 4 \times 10^9 g/cm^3$  (Table 1) we obtain  $F_{min} = 6.3 \times 10^{-15}$  and  $(\Gamma_{sh}\beta_{sh})_{max} = 4.3$  and  $8.8$  for  $a = 0.2$  and  $a = 0.232$ , respectively. Note that these values are considerably smaller than the ones in the calculations of Colgate (1984) .

Heating and acceleration of the gas behind the strong adiabatic radiation-dominated ( $\gamma_{ad} = 4/3$ ) shock wave propagating in nonrelativistic cold gas can be described in terms of the conditions on the shock front as given by Blandford and McKee (1976) :

$$\epsilon_2 = \Gamma_2(4\Gamma_2 + 3)\rho_1 c^2 \quad (15)$$

$$\rho_2 = (4\Gamma_2 + 3)\rho_1 \quad (16)$$

$$\Gamma_{sh}^2 = (4\Gamma_2 - 1)^2(\Gamma_2 + 1)/(8\Gamma_2 + 10) \quad (17)$$

where indicies 1 and 2 refer to the parameters in front and behind the shock, respectively,  $\Gamma_2 = (1 - \beta_2^2)^{-1/2}$  is the Lorentz factor of the fluid behind the shock,  $\rho$  is the density of the gas and  $\epsilon$  is the energy density.

The equation of state of the gas behind the shock is given by:

$$p_2 = \frac{1}{3}(\epsilon_2 - \rho_2 c^2) \quad (18)$$

From eq. (18) it is easy to obtain the following formula for the pressure:

$$p_2 = \frac{1}{3}(4\Gamma_2 + 3)(\Gamma_2 - 1)\rho_1 c^2. \quad (19)$$

In our case the main contribution to the pressure is provided by the radiation

$$p_2 = \frac{1}{3}a_K T_2^4, \quad (20)$$

for  $kT_2 \ll m_e c^2$ , and by the radiation and the electron-positron pairs

$$p_2 = \frac{1}{3}a_K T_2^4 \left(1 + \frac{7}{4}\right) \quad (21)$$

for  $kT_2 \gg m_e c^2$ , where  $a_K$  is a constant of the energy density of radiation.

Hence one obtains for  $kT_2 \gg m_e c^2$  and  $kT_2 \ll m_e c^2$  respectively:

$$T_2 = \left(\frac{4}{11a_K}(4\Gamma_2 + 3)(\Gamma_2 - 1)\rho_1 c^2\right)^{1/4} \quad (22)$$

and

$$T_2 = ((4\Gamma_2 + 3)(\Gamma_2 - 1)\frac{\rho_1 c^2}{a_K})^{1/4} \quad (23)$$

A comment to eq. (17) is in order. This equation gives the connection between the Lorentz factor of the shock  $\Gamma_{sh}$  and the Lorentz factor  $\Gamma_2$  of the fluid behind the shock. Therefore, from the known shock velocity at each  $F$ , given by Eq. (11), one can reconstruct using Eq.(17) the distribution of Lorentz factor of the gas over the outer layers at the moment when the shock reached the surface of the star. The maximum value of  $\Gamma_2$  corresponds to maximum value of  $\Gamma_{sh}$  given by eq. (14). Numerically for the *compact white dwarf* model we obtain  $(\Gamma_2)_{max} = 6.7$  and 15 for  $a = 0.2$  and  $a = 0.232$ , respectively. For the *extended white dwarf* model  $(\Gamma_2)_{max} = 3.4$  and 6.6 for  $a = 0.2$  and  $a = 0.232$ , respectively. According to eq. (22), the large value of  $(\Gamma_2)_{max}$  results in the high temperature  $T_2^{sur}$  at the moment when the shock reaches the surface.

Let us discuss now the temperature of the gas behind the shock front and the precursor gamma burst connected with it. When the shock reaches the surface of the star, the temperature  $T_2^{sur}$  behind it is given by Eq. (22) with  $\Gamma_2 = (\Gamma_2)_{max}$ . The corresponding values for the *compact* model are  $4.9 \times 10^8 (7.4 \times 10^8) K$  for  $a = 0.2 (0.232)$  and for the *extended* model  $1.6 \times 10^8 (2.2 \times 10^8) K$  for  $a = 0.2 (0.232)$ .

The burst of radiation emerges from the star during the shock breakout, when radiation energy trapped in the shock escapes through the translucent external layer of the star. The shock breakout phenomenon was studied in detail for the case of SNII by Grassberg, Imshennik and Nadyozhin (1971), Imshennik and Nadyozhin (1988, 1989), Blinnikov and Nadyozhin (1991), Ensman and Burrows (1992) . The picture can be described as follows. At the time the shock approaches the surface it becomes thick. When the precursor of the shock reaches the surface, the front is spread over the distance with the optical thickness  $\tau \sim 100$ , according to the calculations of Ensman and Burrows (1992) . This moment can be taken as one when the shock breakout starts and the radiation emerges from the star. Following qualitatively this picture it is easy to evaluate the total energy of the burst in the relativistic case that we are examining. In the rest system of the shock, this is given by the product of  $4\pi R_s^2 (T_2^{sur})^4$  and the duration of the burst. The latter can be estimated as the time,  $\delta t_{rest} \sim l_\gamma / c$ , of the photon escape from the thickness,  $l_\gamma$ , of the shock front. For the *compact dwarf*, scattering of the photons is caused mainly by  $e^+e^-$ -pairs (for the *extended dwarf* their contribution is rather small). Then  $l_\gamma$  for optical thickness  $\tau \sim 100$  is given by  $l_\gamma \sim \tau(\sigma_T n_{e^+e^-})^{-1} \sim 2.5 \cdot 10^2 (2.5) \text{ cm}$  for  $a = 0.2 (0.232)$ . Taking into account the blue shift of the emitted photons, the fluency  $F_\gamma$  can be found as

$$F_\gamma = (\Gamma_2)_{max} 4\pi R_s^2 \sigma (T_2^{sur})^4 l_\gamma / (4\pi r^2 c)$$

where  $r$  is the distance to the source. Numerically this fluency is  $F_\gamma \sim 2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ erg/cm}^2$  for  $r = 10 \text{ kpc}$  and the compact dwarf model with  $a = 0.2$ . For the *extended white dwarf model* this flux is  $\sim 10^2$  times larger. The typical energy of the photons in the burst is  $E_\gamma^{obs} \sim (\Gamma_2)_{max} k T_2^{sur} \sim 300 (1000) \text{ keV}$  for the case of *compact white dwarf* with  $a = 0.2 (0.232)$ . The values of the temperature  $T_2^{sur}$  and the mean energy of the photons from the precursor burst



are tabulated in Table 2. The duration of the burst,  $\delta t_{obs}$ , as observed by a distant observer is very short. It is determined by the time delay of the photons arriving from the different points of the star surface. The beaming effect makes the duration shorter in the relativistic case (see e.g. Rees 1968). Since the emitting angle is  $\theta_e \sim 1/\Gamma$  in the laboratory frame, the time delay of the photons from the  $\theta = 0$  and  $\theta = \theta_e$  directions is

$$(\delta t)_{obs} \sim \frac{R_s}{c} \frac{1}{2\Gamma_2^2} \quad (24)$$

which numerically is  $4 \times 10^{-5} (7 \times 10^{-6})$  s for  $a = 0.2 (0.232)$ .

The accurate calculations are needed for the detailed description. However, the gamma ray precursor due to the shock breakout seems to be detectable by such instruments as BATSE.

#### 4. Hydrodynamical acceleration

Hydrodynamical acceleration proceeds in two stages. During the first one, described in section 3, the shock propagating through the gas with the falling density, increases its velocity according to eq.(11) until the fraction of the shell ahead of it reaches  $F_{min}$  given by eq. (13). Starting from this moment the shock is decaying. It leaves behind the heated shell moving outwards with velocity  $\beta_2$  and Lorentz factor  $\Gamma_2$  given by eq. (17). The shell now expands in the low density gas. The thermal energy of the shell as well as the work of the pressure of the inner layers, are converted into kinetic energy of the shell. This is the second, adiabatic, stage of acceleration.

When the shock reaches the surface of the star, the shell has a wide velocity distribution from nonrelativistic values in the inner parts of the shell to ultrarelativistic ones in the narrow outer part of the shell. During the adiabatic stage, the nonrelativistic velocities of gas elements increases as  $u_f \simeq 2k_N u_2$ , where  $u_f$  and  $u_2$  are the final and initial velocities, respectively, and we take  $k_N \sim 1$  ( $k_N = 0.91$  for  $n = 3$  polytrope and  $\gamma_{ad} = 4/3$  (Kazhdan and Murzina 1992)). The initial velocity  $u_2$  is given by Eq. (12). In the ultrarelativistic case

$$\Gamma_f = \Gamma_2^b. \quad (25)$$

The power  $b$  as obtained in the analytical solutions is  $b = 1 + \sqrt{3} = 2.73$  for the plane shock wave (Johnson & McKee 1971) and  $b = 2.0$  for the spherical one (Eltgroth 1972).

In our calculations we shall adopt  $2.0 \leq b \leq 2.73$ .

One can approximate both relativistic and nonrelativistic cases by the relation:

$$\Gamma_f = \Gamma_2^b + (4k_N^2 - b) \frac{\Gamma_2 - 1}{\Gamma_2^2} \quad (26)$$

Therefore, the gas element located in the pre-shock shell at a distance  $r$ , which we describe by the fraction of external mass  $F$  given by eq. (10), is accelerated first to the Lorentz factor  $\Gamma_2(F)$ , given by eqs. (11),(17) and then to the Lorentz factor  $\Gamma_f$  given by eq. (26).

The number of nucleons accelerated to a kinetic energy per nucleon higher than  $E_K = (\Gamma_f - 1)m_H c^2$  is given by

$$Q_N(> E_K) = \frac{(F(E_K) - F_{min})M_s}{m_H}. \quad (27)$$

Therefore,  $Q_N(> E_K)$  gives us the integral spectrum of hydrodynamically accelerated nuclei.

For the nonrelativistic case  $\Gamma_f - 1 \ll 1$  we have:

$$F(E_K) = F_i(E_K/E_i)^{-\gamma_{nr}^{int}} \quad (28)$$

where  $\gamma_{nr}^{int} = 2/(3a)$  and numerically  $\gamma_{nr}^{int} = 3.3(2.9)$  for  $a = 0.2(0.232)$ . The energy parameter  $E_i$  is given by:

$$E_i = \frac{72}{49}(\Gamma\beta)_i^2 m_H c^2 = 3.4 MeV/nucleon. \quad (29)$$

For ultrarelativistic case  $\Gamma_f \gg 1$  one obtains

$$F(E) = K\left(\frac{E}{m_H c^2}\right)^{-\gamma_{rl}^{int}} \quad (30)$$

where  $K = 1.1 \times 10^{-11}$  and  $K = 2.3 \times 10^{-10}$  for  $a = 0.2$  and  $a = 0.232$ , respectively. The exponent of the spectrum in ultrarelativistic case is  $\gamma_{rl}^{int} = 4/(3ab)$  and numerically it is equal to  $\gamma_{rl}^{int} = 3.3$  for  $a = 0.2$  and  $b = 2.0$ ; and  $\gamma_{rl}^{int} = 2.1$  for  $a = 0.232$  and  $b = 2.73$

Note that in all cases the values of  $\gamma$  are given for integral spectra.

The parameters of the spectra of hydrodynamically accelerated particles are given in Table 3.

Table 3 shows that in the *compact white dwarf* case the Lorentz factor of hydrodynamically accelerated nuclei reaches the values of  $\Gamma_f \sim 100 - 1000$ , while for the *extended white dwarf* the maximum values of Lorentz factors are less,  $\Gamma_f \sim (10 - 100)$ . The fraction  $10^{-9} - 10^{-10}$  of the total mass of the star is accelerated to the Lorentz factors  $\Gamma_f \geq 2$ . The net energy of these particles reaches  $10^{44} - 10^{45}$  ergs. The net energy of the subrelativistic particles with  $E_K > 500$  MeV/nucleon is  $10^{45} - 10^{46}$  ergs. The total number of nucleons  $Q_N$  accelerated to energies higher than  $E_K$  is given in Table 3. The particles with these energies can generate gamma radiation through production of neutral pions.  $E_\gamma^m$  in Table 3 refers to the end of the power law spectrum.

During the expansion of the relativistic shell its optical depth  $\tau$  decreases. When  $\tau \gg 1$  the energy losses of the shell due to radiation are small. The thermal energy of the shell and the work of the pressure of the internal layers are converted into kinetic energy of the shell and these

processes are taken into account in the above mentioned calculations. Due to the work of the inner layers, the total energy of the outer layer in the end of the adiabatic expansion is larger than its total energy at the moment when the shock crossed it.

When the optical depth of the shell decreases to  $\tau \leq 1$ , the remaining thermal energy will be mostly radiated away and at some conditions a second precursor gamma ray burst might be produced. The physics of this second burst is similar to that of the prompt precursor of gamma burst in the fireball models (Goodman 1986; Paczynsky 1986; Shemi and Piran 1990; Meszaros and Rees 1993) .

## 5. Gamma ray burst

The expansion of the relativistic shell after the adiabatic phase looks like the propagation of a powerful beam of relativistic particles. They have energies up to  $1000 \text{ GeV/nucleon}$  and total energy  $10^{45} - 10^{46} \text{ ergs}$ . These particles interact with the accreting gas producing the pions and gamma rays from neutral pion decays. The distribution of the gas around the white dwarf is described by eq. (4) for  $r \geq R_{sh}$  and eq. (5) for  $r \leq R_{sh}$ . The numerical parameters for this distribution are listed in Table 1.

Our calculations for production of photons (through  $pp \rightarrow \pi^0 \rightarrow \gamma\gamma$ ) are performed for two energy regions:  $E_K^{min} \leq E_K \leq E_c$  and  $E_K > E_c$ , where  $E_K^{min} = 0.4 \text{ GeV/nucleon}$  and  $E_c = 10 \text{ GeV/nucleon}$ .

For the low energy region  $0.4 - 10 \text{ GeV/nucleon}$  we calculate the total number of photons  $Q_\gamma$  of all energies produced in the burst at angle  $\theta$  relative to the direction to the secondary companion:

$$\frac{dN_\gamma(\theta)}{d\Omega} = 2 \int_{R_S}^{\infty} dr n_N(r, \theta) \int_{E_K^{min}}^{E_c} dE_K \frac{Q_N(E_K)}{4\pi} < \xi \sigma(E_K) > \quad (31)$$

where  $n_N(r, \theta)$  is the number density for the nucleons in the gas,  $Q_N(E_K)$  is the total number of accelerated nucleons with energy  $E_K$  per nucleon and  $< \xi \sigma(E_K) >$  is the cross section for  $\pi^0$  production in  $NN$ - collisions. For this cross-section we use the parametrization of experimental data for  $p + p \rightarrow \pi^0 + all$  given by Dermer (1986) .

For energies  $E > 10 \text{ GeV/nucleon}$  we shall use the scaling approximation for the cross section:

$$\frac{d\sigma(E_N, E_\pi)}{dE_\pi} = \frac{\sigma_0}{E_\pi} f_\pi(x) \quad (32)$$

where  $x = E_\pi/E_K$ ,  $E_\pi$  is the pion energy,  $\sigma_0 = 32 \text{ mb}$  and:

$$f_\pi(x) = 0.67(1-x)^{3.5} + 0.5e^{-18x} \quad (33)$$

This approximation describes very well the experimental data. The differential spectrum of produced gamma radiation is calculated as

$$\frac{dN_\gamma(E_\gamma, \theta)}{d\Omega dE_\gamma} = \sigma_0 \int_{R_S}^{\infty} dr n_N(r, \theta) \int_{E_\gamma}^{E_K^{max}} \frac{dE_K}{E_K} \frac{Q_N(E_K)}{4\pi} \int_{E_\gamma/E_K}^1 \frac{dx}{x^2} f_\pi(x) \quad (34)$$

where  $E_K^{max}$  is the maximum energy per nucleon in the spectrum of accelerated protons. The results of the calculations are displayed in Figs. 2-4.

In Fig. 2 the column density of gas in the binary system is plotted as a function of angle  $\theta$  relative to the line between the centers of the stars. One can see that for all angles the main contribution comes from the region  $r \leq R_{sh}$  (the horizontal lines). Only at small angles the contribution of the stellar wind is appreciable, however for  $\theta > 5^\circ$  it does not exceed 10%.

The column density in both our models is considerably less than the nuclear interaction length ( $x_N \sim 40 - 50 g/cm^2$ ) and high-energy gamma absorption length ( $x_{abs} \sim 70 g/cm^2$ ). Therefore, the column density dependence  $x(\theta)$  shown in the Fig. 2, coincides exactly with the total photon flux dependence  $\dot{N}_\gamma(\theta)$ .

More explicitly the distribution of the gas in the binary system is displayed in Fig. 3, where the density of the gas,  $\rho$ , is plotted against the distance from the white dwarf. The position of the shock with the transition to the stellar wind density is clearly seen there.

In Fig. 3 the density profile coincides with the time profile of the gamma burst. The energy-integrated number of produced photons  $d\dot{N}_\gamma/d\Omega$  for given  $\theta$  (angle relative to the binary axis) is shown as a function of the production time  $t$  in the binary system. This time is equal to the time-of-flight,  $t = (r - R_S)/v_N$ , for the nuclei with energy per nucleon  $E_K$  at the maximum of the production rate  $< \xi \sigma(E_K) > N(E_K)$ .

The flux decreases with time approximatively as  $(t + t_o)^{-3/2}$ , where  $t_o = R_S/v_N$ . Duration of the burst for a remote observer is different at different energies of photons. The peak in the spectrum, centered at  $E_\gamma \approx 70 MeV$  is produced by pions with small kinetic energies and therefore photons are emitted isotropically. The observed duration is determined by difference in time-of-flight for photons arriving radially ( $\theta = 0$ ) and from the edge of the limb ( $\theta \sim \bar{R}/r$ ), where  $\bar{R} = \sqrt{R_s R_{sh}}$  is the mean length of the  $pp$ -interaction region and  $r$  is the distance between the observer and the source. It gives the duration  $(\Delta t)_{obs} \sim 1 s (3 s)$  for the *compact (extended)* model. For the high energy photons produced by the protons with  $\Gamma \gg 1$  the burst is considerably shorter. The simple kinematic estimates show that the photons are on average emitted at an angle  $\theta \approx 0.3/\Gamma$  relative to the direction of the proton propagation (i.e. the radial direction). Then the duration, determined again as the maximum difference of time-of-flight, is

$$(\Delta t)_{obs} = \frac{\bar{R}}{c} \frac{\theta^2}{2} \approx 0.05 \frac{\bar{R}}{c} \Gamma^{-2}.$$

In particular for photons with  $E_\gamma \sim 1 \text{ GeV}$  the observed duration of the burst is  $(\Delta t)_{obs} = 5 \cdot 10^{-4} (1 \cdot 10^{-3}) \text{ s}$  for the *compact (extended)* model.

The spectrum of the high energy gamma radiation is very steep: it has the same power-exponent  $\gamma_{rl}^{int} + 1$  as the differential spectrum of accelerated particles. At  $E_\gamma \simeq 70 \text{ MeV}$  it has the well-known peak from the decays of pions at rest. Therefore, the gamma burst is detected most effectively at  $E_\gamma \sim 100 \text{ MeV}$ . However, at  $E_\gamma \geq 1 \text{ GeV}$  the signal is also detectable. The total number of emitted photons varies from  $N_\gamma \sim 4.5 \times 10^{47}$  (for the *compact white dwarf model*) to  $N_\gamma \sim 3.5 \times 10^{45}$  (for the *extended white dwarf model*) (Table 4). The corresponding fluences are in the range from 0.3 to 40 *photons/cm<sup>2</sup>* for a distance of 10 *kpc*.

## 6. Discussion and Conclusions

We study SNIa explosion in a binary system comprised of a compact star (white dwarf) and a late-type secondary companion (red giant). The accretion onto a white dwarf causes the ignition of nuclear reactions and the ejection of the shell. The accretion is assumed to be in the wind regime with the Roche lobe of the secondary companion not filled. The accretion flow terminates by the shock at distance  $r = R_{sh}$  from the white dwarf. The radius of the shock  $R_{sh}$  is of the order of the accretion radius  $R_{acc}$ , see eq. (1). At  $r \leq R_{sh}$  we assume a radial accretion flow to the white dwarf.

Gas within the shock radius comprises the main fraction of the target for gamma ray production. Its density and column density are determined mostly by the mass of the compact star  $M_S$  and by the parameters of the stellar wind, its density  $\rho_W$  and velocity  $u_W$ . We take the density distribution and the radius of the shock  $R_{sh}$  according to the numerical calculations by Taam, Fu and Fryxell (1991). The values of the column density of the gas as a function of  $\theta$ , the angle relative to the line between the centers of the two stars, are given in Fig. 2. The mean value of the column density is  $x = 3.4 \text{ g/cm}^2$  for the *compact white dwarf* model and  $x = 0.67 \text{ g/cm}^2$  for the *extended white dwarf* model (Table 1).

The particles in our model are accelerated hydrodynamically. We distinguish two stages of acceleration. The first one is connected with the propagation of the shock through the shell. The acceleration occurs if the density in the shell decreases sharply outwards: e.g.  $\rho(r) \sim r^{-m}$  with  $m > 3$ . In this case the shock propagates with increasing velocity leaving the hot gas with large radial velocity behind the shock front. Following Colgate (1984), we describe the position of the considered layer by the amount of the gas in front of it. Namely we use the fraction  $F = M(> r)/M_s$ , where  $M(> r)$  is the mass of the shell at the distance greater than  $r$  and  $M_s$

is the mass of the star. The Lorentz factor of the gas in the shell at given  $F$  can be found from eqs. (11), (17). The uncertainties for these calculations are mainly connected with the parameter  $a$ , which is defined by eq. (9); we expect that it varies from 0.2 to 0.232 (Gnatyk 1985) .

The second stage of acceleration begins when the shock reaches the outer edge of the star. The shell adiabatically expands into a low-density medium and the pressure accelerates the shell. The thermal energy of the gas and the work of the pressure are converted into kinetic energy of the shell. This stage terminates when the shell becomes transparent and the thermal energy is radiated away. The Lorentz factor of the shell acquired at this stage is  $\Gamma_f = \Gamma_2^b$ , where  $\Gamma_2$  is the Lorentz factor at the end of the first stage and  $b$  is a parameter which varies from  $b = 2.0$  for the spherical wave (Eltgroth 1972) to  $b = 2.73$  for the plane wave (Johnson & McKee 1971). The value of  $b$  gives the largest uncertainties for the calculations of this stage of acceleration.

The numerical predictions are given for two models: *compact white dwarf* ( $M_S = 1M_\odot$  and  $R_S = 1 \times 10^8 cm$ ) and *extended white dwarf* ( $M_S = 1M_\odot$  and  $R_S = 1 \times 10^9 cm$ )(Table 1). The former case is more favorable for particle acceleration. For given values of the parameters  $a$  and  $b$  the spectrum of the accelerated nuclei has a power-law form with the integral exponent  $\gamma_{rl}^{int} = 4/(3ab)$ . In the *compact white dwarf* case with  $a = 0.232$ ,  $b = 2.73$  we obtain  $\gamma_{rl}^{int} = 2.1$ , the maximum energy of particles  $E^{max} \sim 1400 GeV/nucleon$ , and the total energy of particles with  $E_K > 500 MeV/nucleon$   $W \sim 3 \times 10^{46} ergs$ .

For the other extreme case of *extended white dwarf* and the values  $a = 0.2$ ,  $b = 2.0$ , the acceleration has a minimal efficiency:  $\gamma_{rl}^{int} = 3.3$ ,  $E^{max} \sim 11 GeV/nucleon$  and the total energy is  $W \sim 2 \times 10^{45} ergs$ .

Two precursor gamma ray bursts are expected. The first one is connected with the shock breakout when the shock traverses the outer thin layer transparent for radiation. The thermal radiation accumulated in the shock front is radiated away when the shock reaches the surface of the star. The thermal photons are blue-shifted due to the relativistic expansion of the shell and their typical energies reach  $E \sim \Gamma_2 k T_2 \sim 300(1000) keV$  for the  $a = 0.2(0.232)$  *compact* model and  $E \sim 47(120) keV$  for the *extended* one. Relativistic effects probably convert the Planck spectrum in the power-law spectrum (Shemi 1994). The total energy of the burst in the reference frame of the observer is  $W_{burst} \sim 2 \times 10^{38}(2 \times 10^{37}) ergs$  for the  $a = 0.2(0.232)$  *compact* model and  $W_{burst} \sim 6 \times 10^{40}(3 \times 10^{41}) ergs$  for the *extended* one. The duration of the burst for a distant observer is given by eq.(24). This time is typically very short  $\Delta t \sim 10^{-5} s$  for a *compact white dwarf*.

The second precursor burst might appear at the last stage of the adiabatic expansion of the shell of accelerated particles behind the shock, when this shell becomes transparent and its thermal energy is radiated away.

The main gamma burst is produced due to the interaction of the accelerated nuclei with the accreting gas. The major part of the calculated flux corresponds to the interaction with the gas within the shock radius  $R_{sh}$ . Protons are produced due to the neutral pion decays. At high

energies the gamma ray spectrum is very steep: it is characterized by the same spectrum exponent of the accelerated particles (see eq. (28) and (30)). At low energy the spectrum has the usual peak at  $E_\gamma \simeq 70 \text{ MeV}$ . Most of the photons have energies  $E_\gamma \geq 70 - 100 \text{ MeV}$ . The maximum energies of photons are of order  $E_\gamma \sim 4 - 140 \text{ GeV}$  depending on the values of the parameters  $a$  and  $b$  for the *compact white dwarf* model and  $E_\gamma \sim 1 - 15 \text{ GeV}$  for the *extended white dwarf* one. The total number of photons in the burst is  $N_\gamma^{tot} \sim 2 \times 10^{46} - 5 \times 10^{47}$  for the *compact white dwarf* and  $N_\gamma^{tot} \sim 4 \times 10^{45} - 1 \times 10^{47}$  for the *extended white dwarf*.

We want to emphasize here that in our calculations we used very conservative choice of the parameters deliberately trying not to overestimate the predictions. The accelerated particles traverse only about  $3.5 \text{ g/cm}^2$  and  $0.67 \text{ g/cm}^2$  of the matter in *compact* and *extended* models respectively. For acceleration we used very conservative assumptions too, which resulted in a steep spectrum and low maximum energies of the accelerated particles in comparison with the Colgate (1984) calculations.

The predicted burst radiation can be easily detected if SNIa occurs in our Galaxy. For a distance  $10 \text{ kpc}$  from the Earth, the typical flux of gamma radiation at  $E_\gamma \geq 100 \text{ MeV}$  is  $1 \text{ phot/cm}^2$ , for  $E_\gamma \geq 10 \text{ GeV}$  it is  $10^{-4} - 10^{-3} \text{ phot/cm}^2$ .

The duration of the burst is different in different energy intervals. At  $E_\gamma \geq 100 \text{ MeV}$  it is of the order of  $1 \text{ s}$ . For the high energy photons at  $E_\gamma \geq 10 \text{ GeV}$  it reduces to  $10^{-5} \text{ s}$ . Thus we predict a novel type of gamma ray bursts with properties quite different from those presently observed. Since these bursts are rare phenomenon, their detection needs the patrol service.

The hydrodynamical mechanism for gamma ray bursts which we put forward here for SNI can work for other objects too. The crucial condition for the hydrodynamical mechanism is a large density gradient which provides acceleration of the shock front. The accelerated particles produce a detectable gamma ray burst even in the case of relatively small column density of the target. As an example we can mention the accretion-induced collapse of a white dwarf to a neutron star (Woosley and Baron 1992 and references therein). According to these calculations  $7 \cdot 10^{-6}$  part of the whole dwarf mass acquires velocity higher than  $u_f = 38000 \text{ km/s}$ . Then maximum velocity of the shock is given by  $(\Gamma_{sh}\beta_{sh})_{max} = 2.8(5.2)$  for  $a = 0.2(0.232)$  which is only a factor 1.5 smaller than in the case of our *extended* model. Therefore, we expect here the gamma burst too. Another example can be given probably by the explosion of a neutron star below the minimum mass (Blinnikov et al 1990, Colpi, Shapiro and Teukovsky 1993). These examples illustrate the attractiveness of the hydrodynamical mechanism for astrophysical applications.

B. Hnatyk is grateful to Laboratori Nazionali del Gran Sasso and in particular to the director Prof. P. Monacelli for hospitality.

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Fig. 1.— A schematic model of a presupernova Ia binary system. The secondary companion (red giant) loses matter via stellar wind and the white dwarf accretes it in the regime of wind accretion.

Fig. 2.— The total column density of gas in the binary system as a function of angle  $\theta$  relative to the binary axis (the line between the centers of two stars).

Fig. 3.— The time profile of the gamma ray burst. On the left ordinate axis the energy-integrated number of photons emitted per  $1s$  and  $1sr$  is displayed. The emission time  $t$  shown in the lower absciss axis is defined as the time-of-flight  $t = (r - R_S)/v_N$  for the nuclei with energy per nucleon  $E_K$  at the maximum of the production rate  $\langle \xi \sigma(E_K) \rangle N(E_K)$ . The time profile curve (full upper curve) coincides with the density distribution  $\rho(r)$  given by the values on the right ordinate axis and the upper absciss axis. The minimum distance corresponds to the surface of the star. The curves are given for the cases of *compact* and *extended* white dwarfs and for  $\theta = 90^\circ$ . Note that the gamma radiation is almost spherically symmetrical (see Fig. 2).

Fig. 4.— Energy spectra at  $E_\gamma \geq 1GeV$  for *compact white dwarf* (solid curves) and *extended white dwarf* (dashed curves). The corresponding values of the parameters  $a$  and  $b$  are shown in the Figure. The plotted quantities are the number of photons in the burst per  $1GeV$ .

Table 1: The values of the parameters for the white dwarf and the wind accretion flow.

parameters	<i>Compact white dwarf</i>	<i>Extended white dwarf</i>
$R_S, cm$	$1.0 \cdot 10^8$	$1.0 \cdot 10^9$
$M_S/M_\odot$	1.4	1.0
$\rho_0, g/cm^3$	$1.0 \cdot 10^{12}$	$4.0 \cdot 10^9$
$d, cm$	$3.0 \cdot 10^{13}$	$3.0 \cdot 10^{13}$
$R_{sh}, cm$	$8.3 \cdot 10^{12}$	$5.9 \cdot 10^{12}$
$\dot{M}_a, M_\odot/yr$	$2.4 \cdot 10^{-8}$	$1.2 \cdot 10^{-8}$
$\dot{M}_W, M_\odot/yr$	$1.0 \cdot 10^{-7}$	$1.0 \cdot 10^{-7}$
$u_W, cm/s$	$3.0 \cdot 10^6$	$3.0 \cdot 10^6$
$x(r \leq R_{sh}), g/cm^2$	3.4	0.67

Table 2: The values of the shock and gas parameters at the moment of shock wave break out.

Parameters	<i>Compact white dwarf</i>		<i>Extended white dwarf</i>	
	$a = 0.2$	$a = 0.232$	$a = 0.2$	$a = 0.232$
$F_{min}$	$4.5 \cdot 10^{-17}$	$4.5 \cdot 10^{-17}$	$6.3 \cdot 10^{-15}$	$6.3 \cdot 10^{-15}$
$(\beta_{sh}\Gamma_{sh})_{max}$	9.0	21	4.3	8.8
$(\Gamma_2)_{max}$	6.7	16	3.4	6.6
$T_2^{sur}, K$	$4.8 \cdot 10^8$	$7.4 \cdot 10^8$	$1.6 \cdot 10^8$	$2.2 \cdot 10^8$
$\bar{E}_\gamma^{obs}, keV$	280	1020	48	125

Table 3: Values of the parameters of hydrodynamically accelerated matter at the end of the acceleration phase. Numbers in the brackets for  $Q_N$  give the powers of ten.

Parameters	<i>Compact white dwarf</i>				<i>Extended white dwarf</i>			
	$a = 0.2$		$a = 0.232$		$a = 0.2$		$a = 0.232$	
	$b = 2.0$	$b = 2.73$	$b = 2.0$	$b = 2.73$	$b = 2.0$	$b = 2.73$	$b = 2.0$	$b = 2.73$
$\Gamma_f$	45	170	230	1500	12	27	44	160
$E_K^{max}, GeV$	42	158	214	1400	11	25	41	150
$\gamma_{rl}^{int}$	3.3	2.4	2.9	2.1	3.3	2.4	2.9	2.1
$Q_N(E_K > 500 MeV)$	3.9(48)	3.9(48)	4.0(49)	4.0(49)	2.8(48)	2.8(48)	2.9(49)	2.9(49)
$Q_N(E_K > 940 MeV)$	5.2(47)	5.2(47)	7.0(48)	7.0(48)	3.7(47)	3.7(47)	5.0(48)	5.0(48)
$Q_N(E_K > 9.4 GeV)$	1.4(43)	1.8(44)	8.6(44)	7.5(45)	1.0(43)	1.3(44)	6.1(44)	5.4(45)

Table 4: The parameters of the main gamma ray burst. The numbers in the brackets for  $N_\gamma$  give the powers of ten.

Parameters	<i>Compact white dwarf</i>				<i>Extended white dwarf</i>			
	$a = 0.2$		$a = 0.232$		$a = 0.2$		$a = 0.232$	
	$b = 2.0$	$b = 2.73$	$b = 2.0$	$b = 2.73$	$b = 2.0$	$b = 2.73$	$b = 2.0$	$b = 2.73$
$W_\gamma, ergs$	2.6(42)	6.2(42)	3.2(43)	7.2(43)	5.6(41)	1.4(42)	7.0(42)	1.6(43)
$N_\gamma^{tot}, phot$	1.5(46)	3.9(46)	2.0(47)	4.5(47)	3.5(45)	8.8(45)	4.4(46)	1.0(47)
$E_\gamma^m, GeV$	4.2	16	21	140	1.0	2.5	4.1	15
$N_\gamma(10 GeV), ph/GeV$	5.0(38)	2.0(40)	6.0(40)	1.0(42)	4.0(33)	4.0(37)	8.0(37)	2.0(41)